CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE KERSHAW SUBSTATION, KERSHAW COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 443

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ABSTRACT

This study reports on an intensive cultural resources survey of a 3 acre substation in the northern portion of Kershaw County, north of the city of Camden, South Carolina. The work was conducted to assist Lynches River Electric Cooperative in complying with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The lot is to be used by Lynches River Electric Cooperative for the construction of a distribution substation. The topography is flat with no distinct ridge tops.

The proposed substation will require the clearing of the area, followed by construction of the proposed facility. These activities have the potential to affect archaeological and historical sites and this survey was conducted to identify and assess archaeological and historical sites that may be on or within sight of the substation lot. For this study, an area of potential effect (APE) 0.5 mile around the substation lot was assumed.

An investigation of the archaeological site files at the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology failed to identify any previously recorded sites.

The S.C. Department of Archives and History GIS was consulted for any previously recorded sites. No such sites were found in the project APE. An historic resources survey was performed in 2002 for the county, however, no sites were found in the project APE.

The archaeological survey of the substation lot incorporated shovel testing at 100-foot intervals along transects placed at 100-foot intervals along Ed Baxley Road. All shovel test fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh and the shovel tests were backfilled at the completion of the study. A total of 17 shovel tests were excavated along six transect lines.

As a result of these investigations no sites were identified. This is likely due to the lack of any distinct ridge top and distance from a permanent water source.

A survey of public roads within a 0.5 mile of the proposed undertaking was conducted in an effort to identify any architectural sites over 50 years old which also retained their integrity. No such sites were found.

Finally, it is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered in the project area during clearing activities. Crews should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office or to Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No construction should take place in the vicinity of these late discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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INTRODUCTION

This investigation was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Mr. Phil Monroe of Lynches River Electric Cooperative in Pageland, South Carolina. The work was conducted to assist Lynches River Electric Cooperative comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The project site consists of a lot measuring about 3 acres for use as a substation, situated in northern Kershaw County north of the city of Camden (Figure 1). The substation tract is situated on the corner of Ed Baxley Road and Lockhart Road (S-20).

The lot consists of land that is generally level. Vegetation consists of a mixed pine and hardwood forest.

The parcel, as previously mentioned, is intended to be used as a substation for a distribution station. Landscape alteration, primarily clearing, subsequent erection of the poles and other facilities, erecting lines, and long-term maintenance of the substation will cause damage to the ground surface and any archaeological resources that may be present in the survey area.

Construction, operation, and maintenance of the substation may also have an impact on historic resources in the project area. Although the project will not remove any structures, substations (as well as other above grade projects) may detract from the visual integrity of historic properties, creating what many consider discordant surroundings. As a result, this architectural survey uses an area of potential effect (APE) about 0.5 mile in diameter around the proposed facility.

This study, however, does not consider any future secondary impact of the project, including increased or expanded development or expansion of a transmission corridor that may be added to connect this substation to an existing line in this portion of Kershaw County.

We were requested by Mr. Phil Monroe of Lynches River Electric Cooperative to provide a proposal for a cultural resources survey on March 26, 2006. A proposal was sent the same day. The proposal was accepted on April 17, 2006. This included examination of the site files at the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. As a result of that work no previously identified sites were found.

Initial background investigations also incorporated a review of the site files at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History. As a result of that work no sites were identified in the 0.5 mile APE. An historic resources survey has been performed for Kershaw County, however, no sites were found in the project APE (New South 2002).

Archival and historical research was limited to a review of secondary sources available in the Chicora Foundation files.

The archaeological survey was conducted on April 28, 2006 by Ms. Julie Poppell under the direction of Dr. Michael Trinkley.

This report details the investigation of the project area undertaken by Chicora Foundation and the results of that investigation.

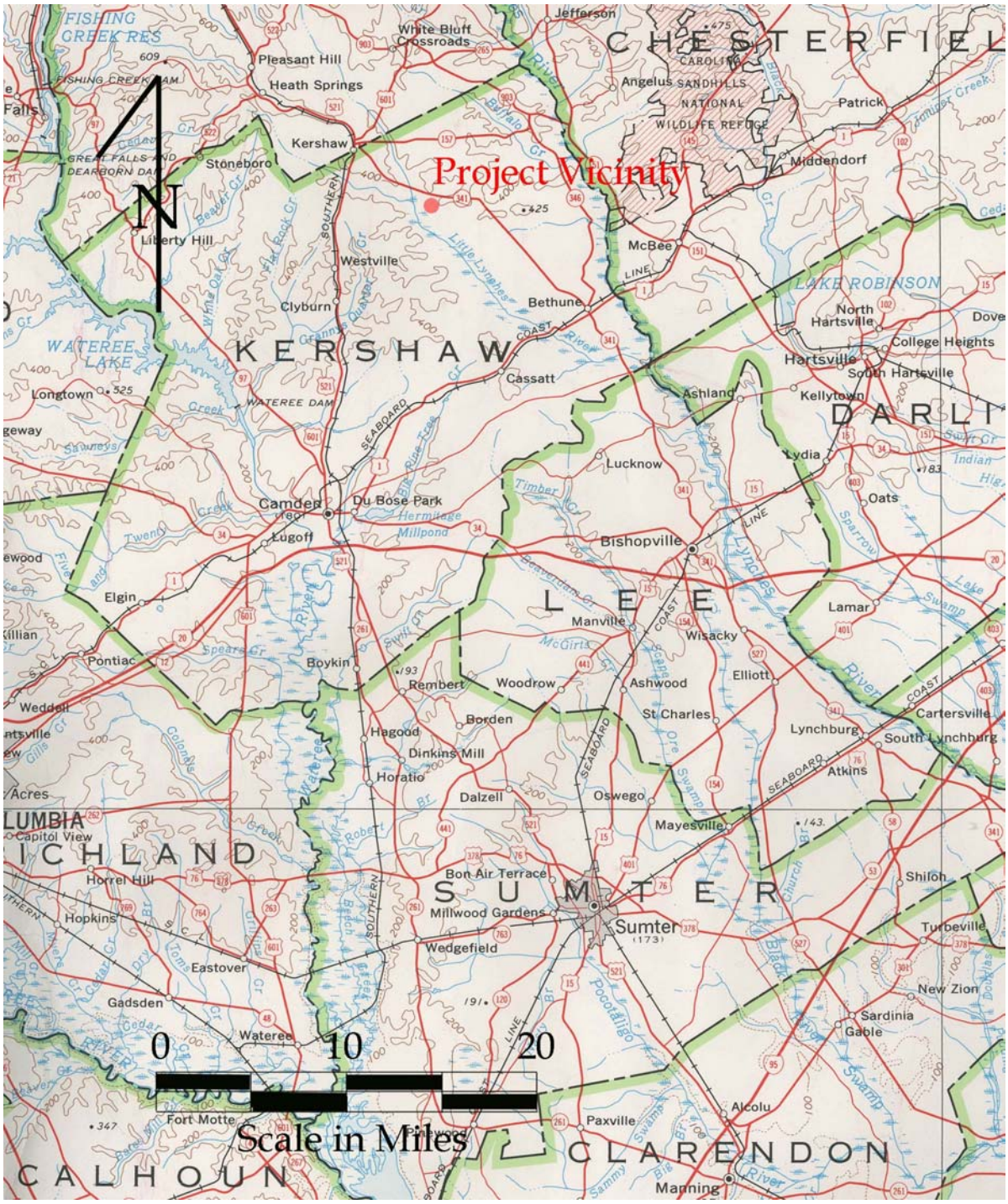

Figure 1. Project vicinity in Kershaw County (basemap is USGS South Carolina 1:500,000).

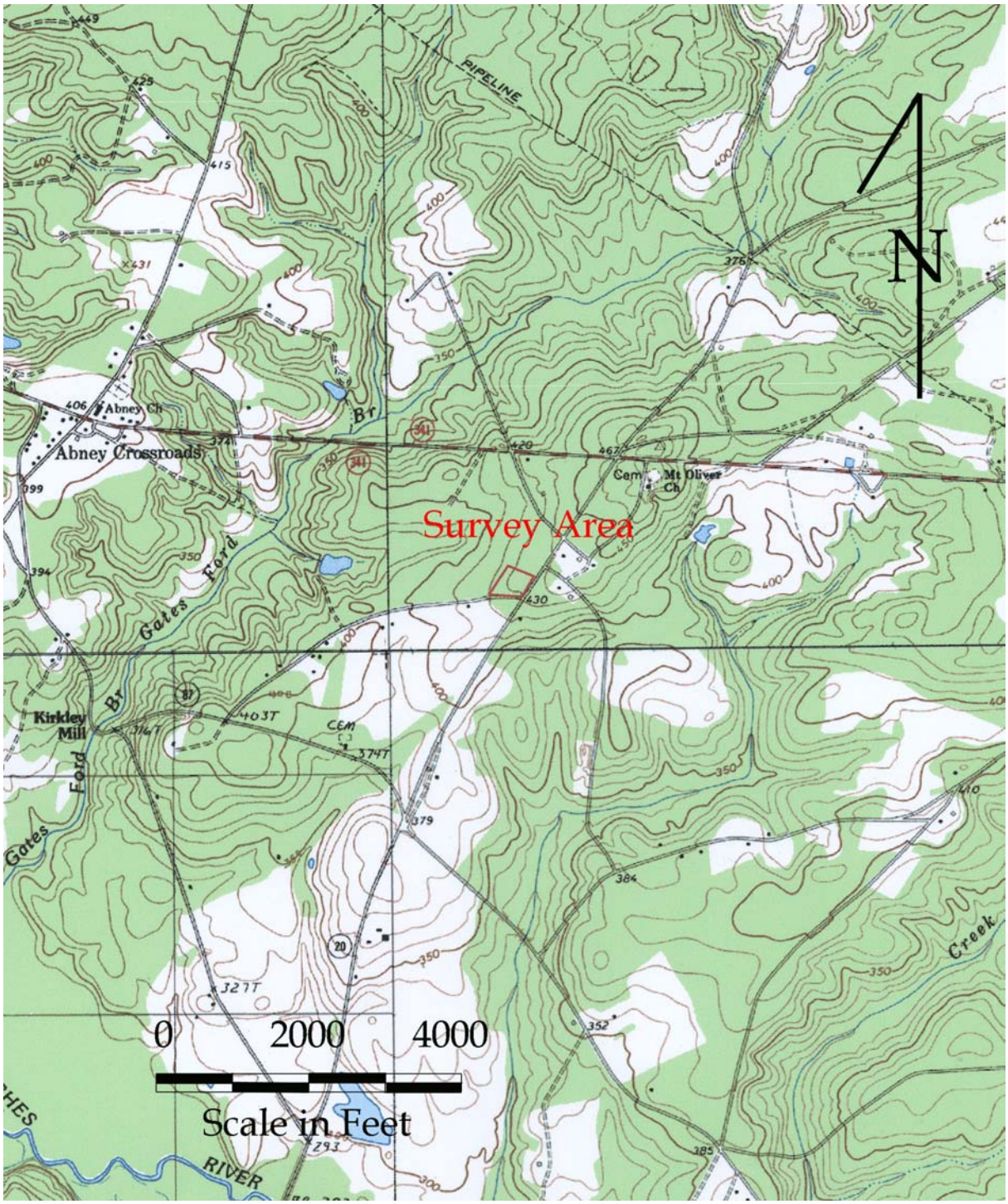

Figure 2. Survey area (basemap is USGS Mt. Pisgah 7.5′).

ENVIRONMENTAL BACKGROUND

Physiography

The project area, in the central portion of South Carolina, is located in Kershaw County and the Atlantic Coastal Plain. The project tract is just beyond the Fall Line and the Sand Hills located in the northern half of the coastal plain. Kershaw County is bounded to the north by Lancaster County, to the south by Sumter and Lee counties, and to the west by Fairfield and Richland counties.

The county contains three physiographic regions: the Piedmont, the Sandhills, and the Coastal Plain. The Coastal Plain, where the project is located, extends from the Atlantic Ocean for about 150 miles to the Fall Line, a term used to identify the transition zone between the soft sediments of the Coastal Plain and the igneous and metamorphic rocks of the Piedmont.

The Coastal Plain has rolling topography, with elevations ranging from about 150 feet above mean sea level (AMSL) to 200 feet AMSL. In the adjacent floodplains and lowlands, slopes range from 0 to 2% with elevations typically less than 150 feet AMSL. On the study tract is fairly level, staying between 420 and 430 feet AMSL.

The survey area is in close contact with a range of physiographic regions. To the north are the dissected plains consisting of the hills and valleys cut by creeks and rivers as they flow toward the coastal plain. Possibly part of the peneplain, the Piedmont is characterized by the dendritic stream patterns and a range of metavolcanic, quartz, and quartzite materials used by Native Americans for stone tools. In the Coastal Plain, where the topography changes dramatically, the hilly upper Coastal Plain gives way to the broad expanses of relatively flat, level ground associated with the lower Coastal Plain. These areas provide sources for Coastal Plain cherts, also used extensively for tool manufacture.

The Wateree River drains the western portion of the county, and the Lynches and Little Lynches Rivers, tributaries of the Pee Dee River, drain the eastern portion. Numerous smaller streams (such as the Twenty Five Mile Creek and Gillies Creek) are found throughout the county.

Geology and Soils

The geology of the county is characterized by unconsolidated water-laid beds

Figure 3. View of mixed pines and hardwoods on the project tract.

of sand, silt, and clay. Coastal Plain material consists of marine-deposited sediments made dominantly of quartz sand and kaolintic clays (Mitchell 1989: 101).

Two soil series are found in the project area. The most common is the excessively drained Lakeland Series. These soils generally have an A horizon of gray (10YR5/2) sand to a depth of 0.4 foot over a very pale brown (10YR7/4) sand to a depth of 1.8 feet. The northern corner of the tract has the somewhat excessively drained Blanton soils. These soils are similar to the Lakeland Series, having an A horizon of gray (10YR5/1) sand to 0.3 foot over a pale brown (10YR6/3) sand to 1.9 feet in depth.

Climate

Elevation, latitude, and distance from the coast work together to affect the climate of South Carolina. In addition, the more westerly mountains block or moderate many of the cold air masses that flow across the state from west to east. Even the very cold air masses, which cross the mountains are warmed somewhat by compression before they descend on the Piedmont and adjacent Sand Hills.

Consequently, the climate of Kershaw County is temperate. The winters are relatively mild and the summers are warm and humid. Rainfall in the amount of about 46 inches is adequate, although less than in some neighboring counties. About 27 inches of rain occur during the growing season, with periods of drought not uncommon during the summer months. As Hilliard illustrates, these droughts tended to be localized and tended to occur several years in a row, increasing the hardship on those attempting to recover from the previous year's crop failure (Hilliard 1984: 16). Perhaps the best wide-scale example of this was the drought of 1845, which caused a series of very serious grain and food shortages throughout the state.

Floristics

The natural vegetation of the project area is the Oak-Hickory-Pine forest, composed of medium tall to tall forests of broadleaf deciduous and needleleaf evergreen trees (Küchler 1964). The major components of this ecosystem include hickory, shortleaf pine, loblolly pine, white oak, and post.

The survey area is presently covered in a mixed pine and hardwood forest, although much of the surrounding area is cultivated or in fallow fields.

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC SYNOPSIS

Previous Research

Kershaw County has received a good bit of archaeological attention. Derting et al. (1991) cites 96 reports ranging from compliance projects (see for example Caballero 1984 and Goodyear and Anderson n.d.) to work at Historic Camden (see Calmes 1968 or Lewis 1976).

Several studies have also been performed at Pinder Hill Plantation (see Trinkley 1999 and Trinkley et al. 2001). Otherwise, the study tract is not situated in any of the five areas of specific concern (Wateree Archaeological District, Boykins Mill, Wateree Canal, Battle of Camden site, or Liberty Hill) identified in the 1977 *Land Development Plan Update, Kershaw County, South Carolina* (Santee-Wateree Regional Council 1977).

Prehistoric Overview

Overviews for South Carolina's prehistory, while of differing lengths and complexity, are available in virtually every compliance report prepared. There are, in addition, some "classic" sources well worth attention, such as Joffre Coe's *Formative Cultures* (Coe 1964), as well as some new general overviews (such as Sassaman et al. 1990 and Goodyear and Hanson 1989). Also extremely helpful, perhaps even essential, are a handful of recent local synthetic statements, such as that offered by Sassaman and Anderson (1994) for the Middle and Late Archaic and by Anderson et al. (1992) for the Paleoindian and Early Archaic. Only a few of the many sources are included in this study, but they should be adequate to give the reader a "feel" for the area and help establish a context for the various sites identified in the study areas. For those desiring a more general synthesis, perhaps the most readable and well balanced is that offered by Judith Bense (1994), *Archaeology of the Southeastern United States: Paleoindian to World War I*. Figure 4 offers a generalized view of South Carolina's cultural periods.

Paleoindian Period

The Paleoindian Period, most commonly dated from about 12,000 to 10,000 B.P., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notch projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points; side scrapers; end scrapers; and drills (Coe 1964; Michie 1977; Williams 1965). Oliver (1981, 1985) has proposed to extend the Paleoindian dating in the North Carolina Piedmont to perhaps as early as 14,000 B.P., incorporating the Hardaway Side-Notched and Palmer Corner-Notched types, usually accepted as Early Archaic, as representatives of the terminal phase. This view, verbally suggested by Coe for a number of years, has considerable technological appeal.[1] Oliver suggests a continuity from the Hardaway Blade through the Hardaway-Dalton to the Hardaway Side-Notched, eventually to the Palmer Side-Notched (Oliver 1985:199-200). While convincingly argued, this approach is not universally accepted.

The Paleoindian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Artifacts are most frequently found along major river drainages, which Michie interprets to support the concept of an economy

[1] While never discussed by Coe at length, he did observe that many of the Hardaway points, especially from the lowest contexts, had facial fluting or thinning which, "in cases where the side-notches or basal portions were missing, . . . could be mistaken for fluted points of the Paleo-Indian period" (Coe 1964:64). While not an especially strong statement, it does reveal the formation of the concept. Further insight is offered by Ward's (1983:63) all too brief comments on the more recent investigations at the Hardaway site (see also Daniel 1992).

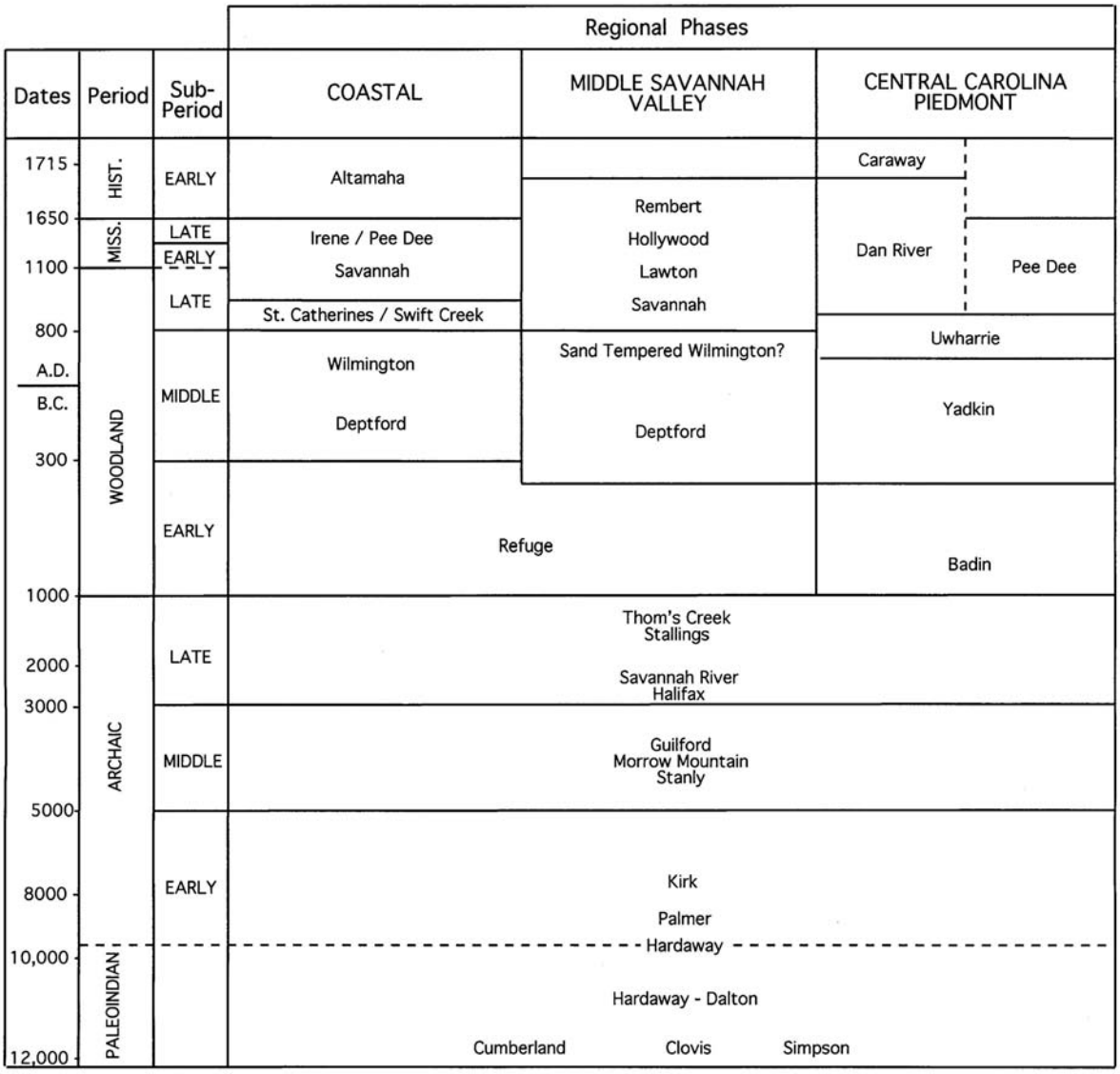

Figure 4. Generalized cultural sequence for South Carolina.

"oriented toward the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna" (Michie 1977:124). Survey data for Paleoindian tools, most notably fluted points, is somewhat dated, but has been summarized by Charles and Michie (1992). They reveal a widespread distribution across the state (see also Anderson 1992b:Figure 5.1) with at least several concentrations relating to intensity of collector activity. What is clear is that points are found fairly far removed from the origin of the raw material. Charles and Michie suggest that this may "imply a geographically extensive settlement system" (Charles and Michie 1992:247).

Although data are sparse, one of the more attractive theories that explains the widespread distribution of Paleoindian sites is the model tracking the replacement of a high technology forager (or HTF) adaptation by a "progressively more generalized band/microband foraging adaption" accompanied by increasingly distinct regional traditions (perhaps reflecting movement

either along or perhaps even between river drainages) (Anderson 1992b:46).

Distinctive projectile points include lanceolates such as Clovis, Dalton, perhaps the Hardaway, and Big Sandy (Coe 1964; Phelps 1983; Oliver 1985). A temporal sequence of Paleoindian projectile points was proposed by Williams (1965:24-51), but according to Phelps (1983:18) there is little stratigraphic or chronometric evidence for it. While this is certainly true, a number of authors, such as Anderson (1992a) and Oliver (1985) have assembled impressive data sets. We are inclined to believe that while often not conclusively proven by stratigraphic excavations (and such proof may be an unreasonable expectation), there is a large body of circumstantial evidence. The weight of this evidence tends to provide considerable support.

Unfortunately, relatively little is known about Paleoindian subsistence strategies, settlement systems, or social organization (see, however, Anderson 1992b for an excellent overview and synthesis of what is known). Generally, archaeologists agree that the Paleoindian groups were at a band level of society, were nomadic, and were both hunters and foragers. While population density, based on isolated finds, is thought to have been low, Walthall suggests that toward the end of the period, "there was an increase in population density and in territoriality and that a number of new resource areas were beginning to be exploited" (Walthall 1980:30).

Archaic Period

The Archaic Period, which dates from 10,000 to 3,000 B.P.[2], does not form a sharp break with the Paleoindian Period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. Associated with this is a reliance on a broad spectrum of small mammals, although the white tailed deer was likely the most commonly exploited animal. Archaic period assemblages, exemplified by corner-notched and broad-stemmed projectile points, are fairly common, perhaps because the swamps and drainages offered especially attractive ecotones.

Many researchers have reported data suggestive of a noticeable population increase from the Paleoindian into the Early Archaic. This has tentatively been associated with a greater emphasis on foraging. Diagnostic Early Archaic artifacts include the Kirk Corner Notched point. As previously discussed, Palmer points may be included with either the Paleoindian or Archaic period, depending on theoretical perspective. As the climate became hotter and drier than the previous Paleoindian period, resulting in vegetational changes, it also affected settlement patterning as evidenced by a long-term Kirk phase midden deposit at the Hardaway site (Coe 1964:60). This is believed to have been the result of a change in subsistence strategies.

Settlements during the Early Archaic

[2] The terminal point for the Archaic is no clearer than that for the Paleoindian and many researchers suggest a terminal date of 4,000 B.P. rather than 3,000 B.P. There is also the question of whether ceramics, such as the fiber-tempered Stallings ware, will be included as Archaic, or will be included with the Woodland. Oliver, for example, argues that the inclusion of ceramics with Late Archaic attributes "complicates and confuses classification and interpretation needlessly" (Oliver 1981:20). He comments that according to the original definition of the Archaic, it "represents a preceramic horizon" and that "the presence of ceramics provides a convenient marker for separation of the Archaic and Woodland periods (Oliver 1981:21). Others would counter that such an approach ignores cultural continuity and forces an artificial, and perhaps unrealistic, separation. Sassaman and Anderson (1994:38-44), for example, include Stallings and Thom's Creek wares in their discussion of "Late Archaic Pottery." While this issue has been of considerable importance along the Carolina and Georgia coasts, it has never affected the Piedmont, which seems to have embraced pottery far later, well into the conventional Woodland period. The importance of the issue in the Sandhills, unfortunately, is not well known.

suggest the presence of a few very large, and apparently intensively occupied, sites which can best be considered base camps. Hardaway might be one such site. In addition, there were numerous small sites which produce only a few artifacts - these are the "network of tracks" mentioned by Ward (1983:65). The base camps produce a wide range of artifact types and raw materials which has suggested to many researchers long-term, perhaps seasonal or multi-seasonal, occupation. In contrast, the smaller sites are thought of as special purpose or foraging sites (see Ward 1983:67).

Middle Archaic (8,000 to 6,000 B.P.) diagnostic artifacts include Morrow Mountain, Guilford, Stanly and Halifax projectile points. Much of our best information on the Middle Archaic comes from sites investigated west of the Appalachian Mountains, such as the work by Jeff Chapman and his students in the Little Tennessee River Valley (for a general overview see Chapman 1977, 1985a, 1985b). There is good evidence that Middle Archaic lithic technologies changed dramatically. End scrapers, at times associated with Paleoindian traditions, are discontinued, raw materials tend to reflect the greater use of locally available materials, and mortars are initially introduced. Associated with these technological changes there seem to also be some significant cultural modifications. Prepared burials begin to more commonly occur and storage pits are identified. The work at Middle Archaic river valley sites, with their evidence of a diverse floral and faunal subsistence base, seems to stand in stark contrast to Caldwell's Middle Archaic "Old Quartz Industry" of Georgia and the Carolinas, where axes, choppers, and ground and polished stone tools are very rare.

Among the most common of all Middle Woodland artifacts is the Morrow Mountain Stemmed projectile point. Originally divided into two varieties by Coe (1964:37,43) based primarily on the size of the blade and the stem, Morrow Mountain I points had relatively small triangular blades with short, pointed stems. Morrow Mountain II points had longer, narrower blades with long, tapered stems. Coe suggested a temporal sequence from Morrow Mountain I to Morrow Mountain II. While this has been rejected by some archaeologists, who suggest that the differences are entirely related to the life-stage of the point, the debate is far from settled and Coe has considerable support for his scenario.

The Morrow Mountain point is also important in our discussions since it represents a departure from the Carolina Stemmed Tradition. Coe has suggested that the groups responsible for the Middle Archaic Morrow Mountain (and the later Guilford points) were intrusive ("without any background" in Coe's words) into the North Carolina Piedmont, from the west, and were contemporaneous with the groups producing Stanly points (Coe 1964:122-123; see also Phelps 1983:23). Phelps, building on Coe, refers to the Morrow Mountain and Guilford as the "Western Intrusive horizon." Sassaman (1995) has recently proposed a scenario for the Morrow Mountain groups which would support this west-to-east time-transgressive process. Abbott and his colleagues, perhaps unaware of Sassaman's data, dismiss the concept, commenting that the shear distribution and number of these points "makes this position wholly untenable" (Abbott et al. 1995:9).

The controversy surrounding Morrow Mountain also includes its posited date range. Coe (1964:123) did not expect the Morrow Mountain to predate 6500 B.P., yet more recent research in Tennessee reveals a date range of about 7500 to 6500 B.P. Sassaman and Anderson (1994:24) observe that the South Carolina dates have never matched the antiquity of their more western counterparts and suggest continuation to perhaps as late as 5500 B.P. In fact they suggest that even later dates are possible since it can often be difficult to separate Morrow Mountain and Guilford points.

A recently defined point is the MALA. The term is an acronym standing for Middle Archaic and Late Archaic, the strata in which these points were first encountered at the Pen Point site (38BR383) in Barnwell County, South Carolina

(Sassaman 1985). These stemmed and notched lanceolate points were originally found in a context suggesting a single-episode event with variation not based on temporal variation. The original discussion was explicitly worded to avoid application of a typology, although as Sassaman and Anderson (1994:27) note, the "type" has spread into more common usage. There are possible connections with both the Halifax points of North Carolina and the Benton points of the middle Tennessee River valley, while the "heartland" for the MALA appears confined to the lower middle Coastal Plain of South Carolina.

The available information has resulted in a variety of competing settlement models. Some argue for increased sedentism and a reduction of mobility (see Goodyear et al. 1979:111). Ward argues that the most appropriate model is one which includes relatively stable and sedentary hunters and gatherers "primarily adapted to the varied and rich resource base offered by the major alluvial valleys" (Ward 1983:69). While he recognizes the presence of "inter-riverine" sites, he discounts explanations which focus on seasonal rounds, suggesting "alternative explanations . . . [including] a wide range of adaptive responses." Most importantly, he notes that:

> the seasonal transhumance model and the sedentary model are opposite ends of a continuum, and in all likelihood variations on these two themes probably existed in different regions at different times throughout the Archaic period (Ward 1983:69).

Others suggest increased mobility during the Archaic (see Cable 1982). Sassaman (1983) has suggested that the Morrow Mountain phase people had a great deal of residential mobility, based on the variety of environmental zones they are found in and the lack of site diversity. The high level of mobility, coupled with the rapid replacement of these points, may help explain the seemingly large numbers of sites with Middle Archaic assemblages. Curiously, the later Guilford phase sites are not as widely distributed, perhaps suggesting that only certain micro-environments were used (cf. Ward [1983:68-69] who would likely reject the notion that substantially different environmental zones are, in fact, represented).

Recently Abbott et al. argue for a combination of these models, noting that the almost certain increase in population levels probably resulted in a contraction of local territories. With small territories there would have been significantly greater pressure to successfully exploit the limited resources by more frequent movement of camps. They discount the idea that these territories could have been exploited from a single base camp without horticultural technology. Abbott and his colleagues conclude, "increased residential mobility under such conditions may in fact represent a common stage in the development of sedentism" (Abbott et al. 1995:9).

From excavations at a Sandhills site in Chesterfield County, South Carolina, Gunn and his colleague (Gunn and Wilson 1993) offer an alternative model for Middle Archaic settlement. He accepts that the uplands were desiccated from global warming, but rather than limiting occupation, this environmental change made the area more attractive for residential base camps. Gunn and Wilson suggest that the open, or fringe, habitat of the upland margins would have been attractive to a wide variety of plant and animal species.

The Late Archaic, usually dated from 6,000 to 3,000 or 4,000 B.P., is characterized by the appearance of large, square stemmed Savannah River projectile points (Coe 1964). These people continued to intensively exploit the uplands much like earlier Archaic groups with the bulk of our data for this period coming from the Uwharrie region in North Carolina.

One of the more debated issues of the Late Archaic is the typology of the Savannah River

Stemmed and its various diminutive forms. Oliver, refining Coe's (1964) original Savannah River Stemmed type and a small variant from Gaston (South 1959:153-157), developed a complete sequence of stemmed points that decrease uniformly in size through time (Oliver 1981, 1985). Specifically, he sees the progression from Savannah River Stemmed to Small Savannah River Stemmed to Gypsy Stemmed to Swannanoa from about 5000 B.P. to about 1,500 B.P. He also notes that the latter two forms are associated with Woodland pottery.

This reconstruction is still debated with a number of archaeologists expressing concern with what they see as typological overlap and ambiguity. They point to a dearth of radiocarbon dates and good excavation contexts at the same time they express concern with the application of this typology outside the North Carolina Piedmont (see, for a synopsis, Sassaman and Anderson 1990:158-162, 1994:35).

In addition to the presence of Savannah River points, the Late Archaic also witnessed the introduction of steatite vessels (see Coe 1964:112-113; Sassaman 1993), polished and pecked stone artifacts, and grinding stones. Some also include the introduction of fiber-tempered pottery about 4000 B.P. in the Late Archaic (for a discussion see Sassaman and Anderson 1994:38-44). This innovation is of special importance along the Georgia and South Carolina coasts, but seems to have had only minimal impact in the uplands of South or North Carolina.

There is evidence that during the Late Archaic the climate began to approximate modern climatic conditions. Rainfall increased resulting in a more lush vegetation pattern. The pollen record indicates an increase in pine, which reduced the oak-hickory nut masts, which previously were so widespread. This change probably affected settlement patterning since nut masts were now more isolated and concentrated. From research in the Savannah River valley near Aiken, South Carolina, Sassaman has found considerable diversity in Late Archaic site types with sites occurring in virtually every upland environmental zone. He suggests that this more complex settlement pattern evolved from an increasingly complex socio-economic system. While it is unlikely that this model can be simply transferred to the Sandhills of South Carolina without an extensive review of site data and micro-environmental data, it does demonstrate one approach to understanding the transition from Archaic to Woodland.

Woodland Period

As previously discussed, there are those who see the Woodland beginning with the introduction of pottery. Under this scenario the Early Woodland may begin as early as 4,500 B.P. and continued to about 2,300 B.P. Diagnostics would include the small variety of the Late Archaic Savannah River Stemmed point (Oliver 1985) and pottery of the Stallings and Thoms Creek series. These sand tempered Thoms Creek wares are decorated using punctations, jab-and-drag, and incised designs (Trinkley 1976). Also potentially included are Refuge wares, also characterized by sandy paste, but often having only a plain or dentate-stamped surface (Waring 1968). Others would have the Woodland beginning about 3,000 B.P. and perhaps as late as 2,500 B.P. with the introduction of pottery, which is cord-marked or fabric-impressed and suggestive of influences from northern cultures.

There remains, in South Carolina, considerable ambiguity regarding the pottery series found in the Sandhills and their association with coastal plain and piedmont types. The earliest pottery found at many sites may be called either Deptford or Yadkin, depending on the research or their inclination at any given moment.

The Deptford phase, which dates from 3050 to 1350 B.P., is best characterized by fine to coarse sandy paste pottery with a check stamped surface treatment. The Deptford settlement pattern involves both coastal and inland sites.

Inland sites such as 38AK228-W, 38LX5,

38RD60, and 38BM40 indicate the presence of an extensive Deptford occupation on the Fall Line and the Inner Coastal Plain/Sand Hills, although sandy, acidic soils preclude statements on the subsistence base (Anderson 1979; Ryan 1972; Trinkley 1980). These interior or upland Deptford sites, however, are strongly associated with the swamp terrace edge, and this environment is productive not only in nut masts, but also in large mammals such as deer. Perhaps the best data concerning Deptford "base camps" comes from the Lewis-West site (38AK228-W), where evidence of abundant food remains, storage pit features, elaborate material culture, mortuary behavior, and craft specialization has been reported (Sassaman et al. 1990:96-98; see also Sassaman 1993 for similar data recovered from 38AK157).

Further to the north and west, in the Piedmont, the Early Woodland is marked by a pottery type defined by Coe (1964:27-29) as Badin.[3] This pottery is identified as having very fine sand in the paste with an occasional pebble. Coe identified cord-marked, fabric-marked, net-impressed, and plain surface finishes. Beyond this pottery little is known about the makers of the Badin wares and relatively few of these sherds are reported from South Carolina sites.

Somewhat more information is available for the Middle Woodland, typically given the range of about 2,300 B.P. to 1,200 B.P. In the Piedmont and even into the Sand Hills, the dominant Middle Woodland ceramic type is typically identified as the Yadkin series. Characterized by a crushed quartz temper the pottery includes surface treatments of cord-marked, fabric-marked, and a very few linear check-stamped sherds (Coe 1964:30-32). It is regrettable that several of the seemingly "best" Yadkin sites, such as the Trestle site (31An19) explored by Peter Cooper (Ward 1983:72-73), have never been published.

Yadkin ceramics are associated with medium-sized triangular points, although Oliver (1981) suggests that a continuation of the Piedmont Stemmed Tradition to at least 1650 B.P. coexisted with this Triangular Tradition. The Yadkin in South Carolina has been best explored by research at 38SU83 in Sumter County (Blanton et al. 1986) and at 38FL249 in Florence County (Trinkley et al. 1993)

In some respects the Late Woodland (1,200 B.P. to 400 B.P.) may be characterized as a continuation of previous Middle Woodland cultural assemblages. While outside the Carolinas there were major cultural changes, such as the continued development and elaboration of agriculture, the Carolina groups settled into a lifeway not appreciably different from that observed for the previous 500-700 years. From the vantage point of the Middle Savannah Valley Sassaman and his colleagues note that, "the Late Woodland is difficult to delineate typologically from its antecedent or from the subsequent Mississippian period" (Sassaman et al. 1990:14). This situation would remain unchanged until the development of the South Appalachian Mississippian complex (see Ferguson 1971).

Historic Overview of the Camden Area

Although four counties, Berkeley, Craven, Colleton, and Granville, were created by the Carolina Proprietors between 1682 and 1685, the Anglican parishes, established in 1706, became the local unit of political administration. Still, the coastal area maintained the reins of power and the Back County was largely unrepresented. In addition, with the settlement of the Yemassee War of 1715, many Native American groups were forced from the region, allowing a more aggressive settlement policy (Wallace 1951). From about 1715 to 1727 there was a period of tremendous lust for land, with the accompanying fraud so common to period politics. In 1730, Governor Robert Johnson began a policy of

[3] The ceramics suggest clear regional differences during the Woodland which seem to only be magnified during the later phases. Ward (1983:71), for example, notes that there are "marked distinctions" between the pottery from the Buggs Island and Gaston Reservoirs and that from the south-central Piedmont.

frontier settlement, hinged on the creation of 11 townships intended to increase the number of small, white farmers. This increased settlement would provide protection from South Carolina's enemies from within (as the African American slaves were viewed) and from without (including both the Spanish and the Native Americans).

With the creation of Georgia, only nine of the proposed 11 townships were actually established. One of these was to be "on the River Watery," and called Fredricksburgh Township (Kirkland and Kennedy 1905: 9-10). Laid out with the Wateree River on one side, it was to be six miles square and contain 60,000 acres. An area 12 miles square was to surround the township, being reserved for those settling within the township. Each resident was to receive a town lot and 50 acres for each member of their family. The Royal Council employed James St. Julien for £500 to survey the township in 1733.

The Township focused on the area around Pine Tree Creek. Kirkland and Kennedy (1905:I:13) note that the original grand plat for Fredricksburgh no longer survives and only three town lots were apparently even laid out, suggesting a less than successful beginning. Most of the land appears to have been sold as large tracts. This practice continued well into the 1750s when a number of Quakers came into the region, settling primarily along the river.

St. Mark's Parish was established in the area from the Congaree River northward to the Lynches River in 1757. One of the earliest records of settlement in the area is the establishment of Joseph Kershaw's store at Pine Tree Creek, with a small village growing up around the store. There is no mention of Camden until 1768 when the Assembly established a Circuit Court at Camden in the Camden District. The first court was held at "Mr. Kershaw's brew house" in Camden in 1773 (Wittkowsky and Moseley 1923:8).

During the American Revolution, Camden was the scene of much turmoil. The City was occupied by British forces from June 1780 through May 1781. Two battles, both horrific defeats for the American forces, took place in the area. The Battle of Camden, in August 1780, took place about 8 miles north of town and Nathanael Gates was decisively defeated by Lord Cornwallis. At Hobkirk Hill in April 1781, the Americans, under Horatio Greene, were defeated by the British forces under Lord Rawdon. Although a victory for the British, the situation afterwards was so untenable that they withdrew from Camden a short time later. Wallace notes that many of the loyalist families that left Camden with Lord Rawdon "perished miserably in the huts of 'Rasdontown' outside of Charleston" Wallace 1951:316).

After the American Revolution and into the early nineteenth century, Camden and the surrounding plantations slipped into a relatively prosperous peace. Camden was visited by Washington during his 1791 Southern tour and the town had been incorporated only a few months before Washington's arrival. Although called "a very pretty Town" by North Carolinian James Iredell, Washington characterized it only as:

> A small place with appearances of some new buildings. It was much injured by the British shilst in their possession (Lipscomb 1993:71).

While in Camden, Washington dined at one of the finest houses in town – the home of John Chesnut on the corner of Fair and King Streets (now moved to 1413 Mill Street) and later toured the nearby battlefields and their still extant skirmish lines.

The architecture of Camden was further reviewed by Robert Gilmor during his trip through the county in the first decade of the nineteenth century. He noted that:

> Camden is a small pretty village, made beautiful by the handsome house of Col. Chesnut & his son, with one or two others, all which are built in the New York style,

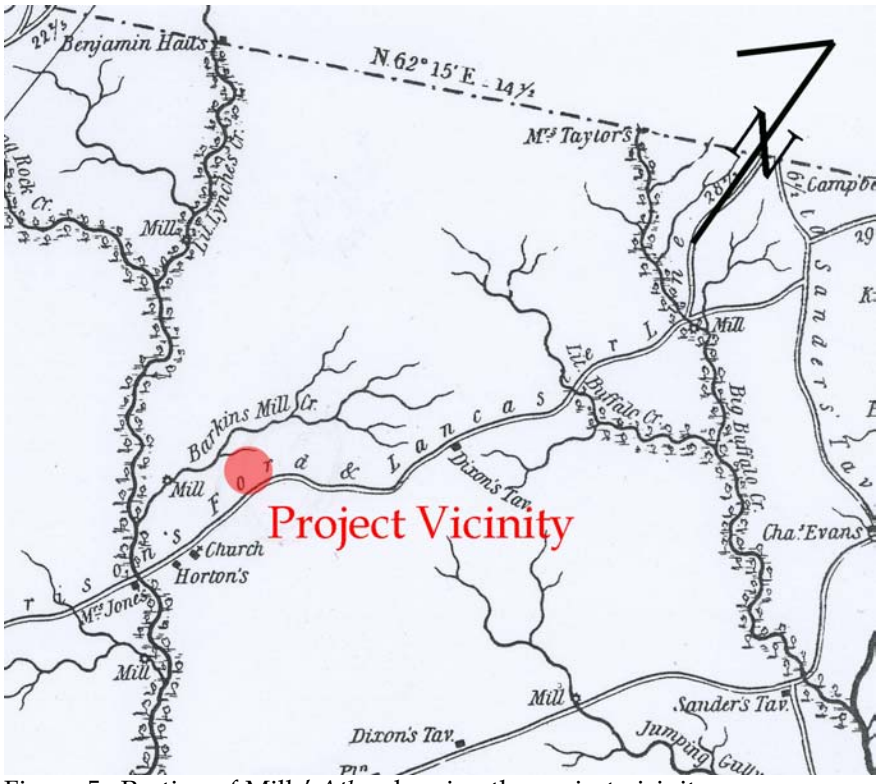

Figure 5. Portion of Mills' *Atlas* showing the project vicinity.

with piazzas & painted white with red roofs (Teal 1997:n.p.).

By the 1820s, the Kershaw District had been created and Mills notes that the Quakers had largely deserted the Camden area, primarily as a response to slavery (Mills 1972[1826]:586). Mills' *Atlas* showing the project area (Figure 5), shows no settlements in the vicinity. Cotton was the staple, although corn, wheat, and rye were being raised for home consumption. Camden was also a center for milling both before and after the American Revolution (Mills 1972[1826]:588). The influence of cotton can be seen in the increase of slavery in the district. In 1800, there were 4,606 whites in the district with 2,530 African American slaves. By 1820, the white population had grown to only 5,628, while the number of slaves had increased to 6,692. This increase in slave population would not only increase, but the white population would begin to decline toward the Civil War. In 1850, for example, there were 9,578 slaves, but only 4,681 whites (DeBow 1854:302; Mills 1972[1826]).

Camden had recovered from the Revolution and Mills reported that it was the center of the cotton trade for this region of South Carolina (Mills 1972[1826]:590).

Kershaw's first railroad did not arrive until 1846, with the opening of a branch line connecting Camden with the main line that ran from Charleston to Columbia. Prior to this, Camden's mercantile interests were promoted by hauling cotton on the river to either Charleston or Georgetown. A steamboat line between Camden and Charleston was begun in 1835. While not really successful because of the fluctuating water levels, it was continued intermittently into the early 1900s (Wittkowsky and Moseley 1923:12).

Camden was largely quiet during the Civil War and it wasn't until Sherman's march that the local inhabitants experienced war first-hand. A detachment entered Camden on February 24, 1865 and burned a number of buildings. Union troops again came through on April 18, and the town was finally occupied by a Federal garrison of the 25th Ohio Volunteers on June 14 under Captain C.W. Ferguson (Kirkland and Kennedy 1905:I:34-35). Civil authorities took control of the city on November 1, 1865, although troops were not removed until March 1866.

After the Civil War, plantation houses were destroyed, portions of Camden were burned, the agricultural base of slavery was destroyed, and the economic system was in chaos. Rebuilding

after the war involved two primary tasks: forging a new relationship between white land owners and black freedmen, and creating a new economic order through credit merchants. General sources discussing the changes in South Carolina include Williamson (1965) and Zuczek (1996).

South Carolina's reconstruction was made harder than necessary by a ruling class that refused to accept the demise not only of the Confederacy, but also of slavery. Foner notes that the South Carolina and Mississippi legislatures further antagonized the Radicals in Congress with the enactment of the first, and most severe, of the so-called Black Codes toward the end of 1865. He observes that:

> South Carolina's Code was in some respects even more discriminatory [than Mississippi's], although it contained provisions, such as prohibiting the expulsion of aged freedmen from plantations, designed to reinvigorate paternalism and clothe it with the force of law. It did not forbid blacks to rent land, but barred them from following any occupation other than farmer or servant except by paying an annual tax ranging from $10 to$100 (a severe blow to the free black community of Charleston and to former slave artisans). The law required blacks to sign annual contracts and included elaborate provisions regulating relations between "servants" and their "masters," including labor from sunup to sundown and a ban on leaving the plantation, or entertaining guests upon it, without permission of the employer. A vagrancy law applied to unemployed blacks, "persons who lead idle or disorderly lives," and even traveling circuses, fortune tellers, and thespians (Foner 1988:199-200).

Curiously these, and similar, laws were not developed by extreme secessionists. Rather, South Carolina's Black Code was articulated by conservative Whig Unionists, like Benjamin Perry. Although some in the state described the efforts as "madness" that would never be accepted by the Radical Congress, more were obsessed by the idea that blacks would never work unless forced to do so. They were also alarmed by the increasing militancy of their former "servants."

As Congress considered a variety of measures to ensure reconstruction, violence raged over many areas of South Carolina, including the Kershaw District (Zuczek 1996:53). Two "reconstruction" acts were passed in March 1867 over Johnson's veto. Congress carved the South into five military districts. Many ex-Confederates were at least temporarily barred from voting or holding office, new governments were created, and blacks were given the right to vote. Finally, only after ratification of the Fourteenth Amendment would Southern states finally be readmitted to the Union. South Carolina began to realize the results of defeat in war.

The milling industry that had a long history in the Camden area at least partially revitalized after the Civil War. By 1884, there were 43 flour and grist mills reported in Kershaw County, along with 16 lumber mills and six turpentine refineries. Of the grist and flour mills about two-thirds were water powered (Anonymous 1884). By 1915, the number of mills had been reduced to three, although two cotton mills were situated in Camden – the Hermitage Cotton Mills with over 16,000 spindles and the Pine Creek Manufacturing Company with nearly 19,000. The Hermitage produced sheetings, while Pine Tree manufactured print cloths (Watson 1916:Table 1).

While some industry came to the Camden area after the Civil War, at least partially

encouraged by the Seaboard Air Line, which was completed in 1899, agriculture was still the primary occupation in the region. In 1915, there was one cotton seed oil mill in Camden and the cotton crop had steadily increased from 21,527 bales in 1910 to 30,652 bales in 1914 (Watson 1916:79).

By the early 1920s, Wittkowsky and Moseley commented that farm tenancy in the county was "one of the worst, if not the worst, economic and social evils" Wittkowsky and Moseley 1923:31). In Kershaw County, 67.1% of the farms were worked by tenants (including both renters and sharecroppers), compared to a state average of only 64.5%. Farm mortgages were high and relatively little of the land (only 47.8%) was improved – described as "entirely too little for our county" (Wittkowsky and Moseley 1923:48).

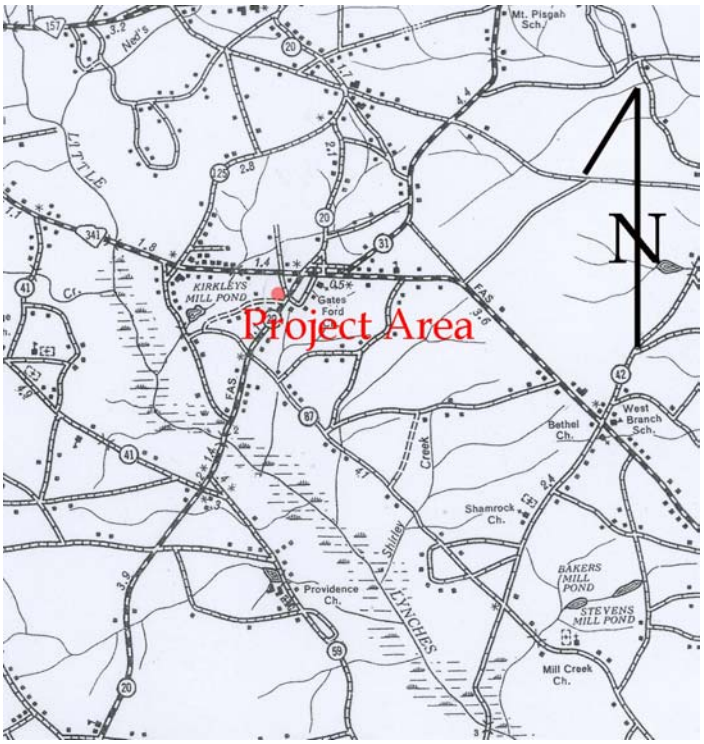

Figure 6. Portion of the *General Highway and Transportation Map of Kershaw County* showing the project area.

Moreover, the reliance on cotton was strangling economic development, encouraging tenancy, and promoting the waste of the land. They also warned that the cotton kingdom was focusing attention away from subsistence crops, so that only a small proportion of the food and feed necessary for the county was actually produced in surrounding farms (Wittkowsky and Moseley 1923:50). They also warned of the coming of the boll weevil and that cotton production had already fallen from 40,000 bales in 1920 to only 13,000 bales in 1921.

Camden is situated in what was called the "Black Belt," the area of oldest plantations. During the 1930s, this area had very large proportions of both tenants and blacks. One of the best studies of tenancy in this region was that by T.J. Woofter (1936). In 1930, 73% of the farmers in the Black Belt were tenants (compared to 60% in the adjacent Atlantic Coastal Plain and 63% in the Piedmont). Nearly half of the plantations were almost exclusively operated by African American tenants or were operated by both whites and blacks. Only 2.7% of the plantations were operated only by whites. Mixed tenancy was also most common (representing 75.7% of the tenants), followed by croppers (representing 13.4%). While the net income of the plantation owner in the Black Belt was a meager $1,462, the tenants' net incomes were only $127 for croppers and $106 for shares. Tenancy cast a very long shadow over all of South Carolina – including Kershaw County. Although the literature is filled with tenancy studies, those by Goldenweiser and Truesdell (1924), Johnson et al. (1935), and Poe (1934) provide an excellent overview.

The *General Highway and Transportation Map of Kershaw County* from 1950 fails to show any structures in the project area (Figure 6).

RESEARCH METHODS AND FINDINGS

Archaeological Field Methods and Findings

The initially proposed field techniques involved the placement of shovel tests at 100-foot intervals on transects placed at 100-foot intervals along Ed Baxley Road. The project boundaries were staked at the time of the survey.

All soil would be screened through ¼-inch mesh, with each test numbered sequentially by transect. Each test would measure about 1 foot square and would normally be taken to a depth of at least 1.0 foot or until subsoil was encountered. All cultural remains would be collected, except for mortar and brick, which would be quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Notes would be maintained for profiles at any sites encountered.

Should sites (defined by the presence of three or more artifacts from either surface survey or shovel tests within a 50 feet area) be identified, further tests would be used to obtain data on site boundaries, artifact quantity and diversity, site integrity, and temporal affiliation. These tests would be placed at 25 to 50 feet intervals in a simple cruciform pattern until two consecutive negative shovel tests were encountered. The information required for completion of South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology site forms would be collected and photographs would be taken, if warranted in the opinion of the field investigators.

A total of 17 shovel tests were excavated along six transect lines.

Analysis of collections would follow professionally accepted standards with a level of intensity suitable to the quantity and quality of the remains.

Nevertheless, the archaeological survey of the project area failed to identify any remains. This is likely due to the lack of any distinct ridge top and distance from a permanent water source.

Architectural Survey

As previously discussed, we elected to use a 0.5 mile area of potential effect (APE). The

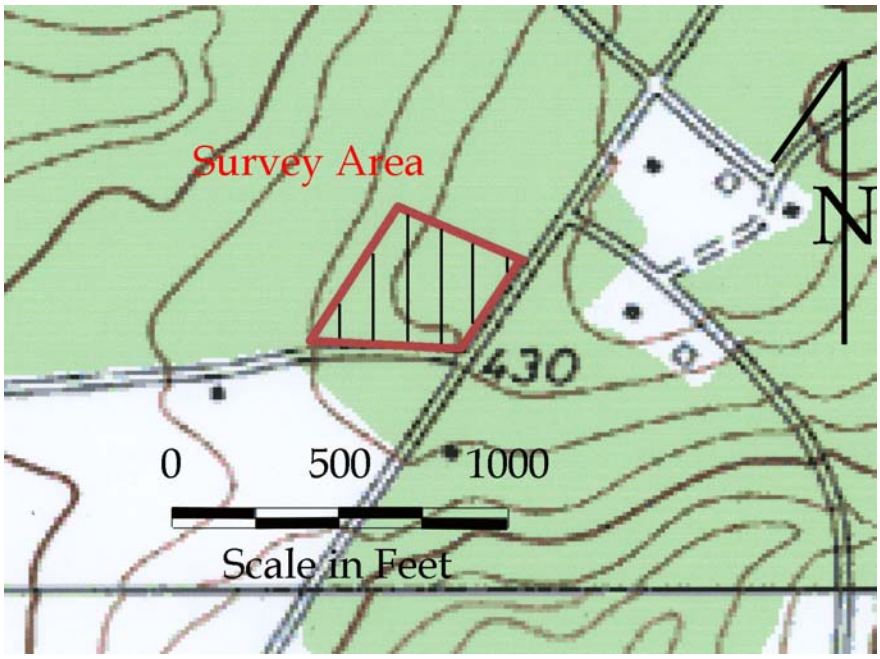

Figure 7. Survey area with transects.

architectural survey would record buildings, sites, structures, and objects that appeared to have been constructed before 1950. Typical of such projects, this survey recorded only those which have retained "some measure of its historic integrity" (Vivian n.d.:5) and which were visible from public roads.

Figure 8. Edge of survey area along Lockhart Road.

For each identified resource, we would complete a Statewide Survey Site Form and at least two representative photo-graphs were taken. Permanent control numbers would be assigned by the Survey Staff of the S.C. Department of Archives and History at the conclusion of the study. The Site Forms for the resources identified during this study would be submitted to the S.C. Department of Archives and History.

Site Evaluation and Findings

Archaeological sites will be evaluated for further work based on the eligibility criteria for the National Register of Historic Places. Chicora Foundation only provides an opinion of National Register eligibility and the final determination is made by the lead federal agency, in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Officer at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.

The criteria for eligibility to the National Register of Historic Places is described by 36CFR60.4, which states:

> the quality of significance in American history, architecture, archaeology, engineering, and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and
>
> a. that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
>
> b. that are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or
>
> c. that embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or

> d. that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

National Register Bulletin 36 (Townsend et al. 1993) provides an evaluative process that contains five steps for forming a clearly defined explicit rationale for either the site's eligibility or lack of eligibility. Briefly, these steps are:

- identification of the site's data sets or categories of archaeological information such as ceramics, lithics, subsistence remains, architectural remains, or sub-surface features;
- identification of the historic context applicable to the site, providing a framework for the evaluative process;
- identification of the important research questions the site might be able to address, given the data sets and the context;
- evaluation of the site's archaeological integrity to ensure that the data sets were sufficiently well preserved to address the research questions; and
- identification of important research questions among all of those which might be asked and answered at the site.

This approach, of course, has been developed for use documenting eligibility of sites being actually nominated to the National Register of Historic Places where the evaluative process must stand alone, with relatively little reference to other documentation and where typically only one site is being considered. As a result, some aspects of the evaluative process have been summarized, but we have tried to focus on an archaeological site's ability to address significant research topics within the context of its available data sets.

As previously mentioned, a survey of historic resources was performed (New South 2002), however no structures were found in the project APE.

No additional structures were identified that were in the APE that contain enough integrity to be eligible for the National Register of Historic Places.

CONCLUSIONS

This study involved the examination of approximately 3 acres of land for a substation in northern Kershaw County. This work, conducted for Mr. Phil Monroe of Lynches river Electric Coopertive, examined archaeological sites and cultural resources found in the proposed project area and is intended to assist this company in complying with their historic preservation responsibilities.

As a result of this investigation no sites were identified. This is likely the result of the lack of a distinct ridge tops and distance from a permanent water source.

A survey of public roads within 0.5 mile revealed no structures that retain their integrity for the National Register of Historic Places.

It is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered during construction activities. As always, contractors should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office, or Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No further land altering activities should take place in the vicinity of these discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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